DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 481 794 FL 027 876

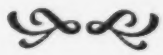
AUTHOR	Chavez, Monika
TITLE	The Diglossic Foreign-Language Classroom: Learners' Views on L1 and L2 Functions.
PUB DATE	2003-00-00
NOTE	48p.; In: The Sociolinguistics of Foreign-Language Classrooms: Contributions of the Native, the Near-Native, and the Non-Native Speaker. Issues in Language Program Direction, A Series of Annual Volumes; see FL 027 869.
PUB TYPE	Reports - Research (143)
EDRS PRICE	EDRS Price MF01/PC02 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	Code Switching (Language); *Diglossia; German; Higher Education; *Language Usage; Second Language Instruction; Sociolinguistics; Student Attitudes; Teacher Attitudes

ABSTRACT

This study examined the views of college learners of German regarding desired degrees of first language (L1) versus second language (L2) use, how desired language use related to observed language use for students and teachers, gaps between desired and observed language, tasks for which students expressed strong preference for L1 and for L2, how learners at three different levels varied in language preference for specific tasks, and common functions for those tasks for which learners expressed the same language preference (at each level of language study). Surveys of 330 German learners enrolled at three levels of study indicated that students considered their speech community (the classroom) diglossic. The most pressing and genuine communicative purposes were generally apportioned to the L1. "Real" L2 communication often involved asymmetric interactions, with the teacher and students playing distinctly different roles. Although participants expressed stronger preference for the L2 as enrollment levels increased, some core functions remained firmly associated with the L1. Teachers consistently tended toward the L2 more strongly than their students desired. Students reported that they used the L1 more than they themselves wanted to. Despite an increase in observed L2 use with each level of enrollment, the profession and the students appeared separated in their views of what the communicative classroom was about. The survey and data analyses are appended. (Contains 63 references.) (SM)

Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made
from the original document.

The Diglossic Foreign-Language Classroom: Learners' Views on L1 and L2 Functions



Monika Chavez

The University of Wisconsin-Madison

ED 481 794

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.

☐ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.

• Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official OERI position or policy.

PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE AND DISSEMINATE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

Sean Ketchem

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

1

FL027876

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

The Diglossic Foreign-Language Classroom: Learners' Views on L1 and L2 Functions

Monika Chavez
The University of Wisconsin-Madison

Introduction

The term *multicompetence* was first coined by Vivian Cook in 1991. He later described it as "the total language knowledge of a person who knows more than one language, including both first language (L1) competence and second language (L2) interlanguage" (1999, p.190). The term *competence* here does not imply complete knowledge of or full proficiency in a given language. In this sense, we can consider all foreign language learners multicompetent. Language professionals have debated the ideal manner in which this multicompetence should manifest itself. Although learners are usually not full-fledged bilinguals, they do have two languages at their disposal, at least in some contexts, for different purposes, and to varying degrees of sophistication. The stage is set for diglossic language use.

The term *diglossia* was first coined by Ferguson (1959) to denote the use of "two or more varieties of the same language [...] by some speakers under different conditions" (p. 325). The language varieties referred to in this definition are the standard language, also described as the "high variety," or "H", and regional dialects, called "low varieties", or "L" (p. 327). Ferguson went on to elaborate that "one of the most important features of diglossia is the specialization of function for H and L" (p. 328) and that "the importance of using the right variety in the right situation can hardly be overestimated" (p. 329). Fishman (1967) juxtaposed bilingualism (or multicompetence) with diglossia, in the context of speech communities. Specifically, he refered to bilingualism as "essentially a characterization of individual linguistic behavior" and to diglossia as a "characterization of linguistic organization at the socio-cultural level (p. 34).

Research has repeatedly shown that the first and the second (or foreign) language serve distinctly different functions in a language classroom, i.e., that classrooms are not only bilingual and mutlicompetent but also diglossic communities (Blyth 1995). However, the profession has yet to reach a consensus on whether diglossia is a boon or a bane to L2 learning, or whether it is simply a fact to be accepted. Most experienced language teachers could describe functions for which they or their students prefer either the first or the second language. In this paper, I will approach the question of diglossic language use from the students' perspective. Learners' beliefs are central in communicative, learner-centered approaches which continually require learners to decide which behaviors to engage in and how to engage in them. Personal views also determine how students perceive, interpret, and react to their teachers' actions. Specifically, I start from the assumption that learners associate certain language functions with either the L1 or the L2.

A diglossic view of classroom interaction presupposes that students and teachers follow describable criteria in selecting the L1 or L2, although these rules may never have been verbalized, much less, discussed or agreed upon. In short, the concurrent use of two languages does not imply that speakers randomly violate boundaries between two linguistic systems. Distinct motivations drive language choice. Although some choices may have to do with the differential in proficiency between the L1 and the L2, not all do. Linguistic constraints operate alongside social ones. Legenhausen (1991), Poulisse and Bongaerts (1994), and Williams and Hammarberg (1998) provide examples of how the L1 can function in second or foreign language learning. Other studies of foreign language classroom discourse, such as Anton (1999), Swain and Lapkin (1998), and Platt and Brooks (1994), have not focused on a diglossic perspective but nevertheless have found it useful in the interpretation of their data.

In emphasizing the learners' role in creating their own learning environment, here in the framework of a speech community, I follow an approach which traces its roots to Gardner and Lambert (e.g., 1972) and Horwitz (1988), and which has since been pursued by a number of researchers (e.g.,Chavez 2000; Liskin-Gasparro 1998; Kern 1995; Ming 1993; Schulz 1996; Zephir and Chirol 1993). Self-reported data have been challenged with regard to their accuracy and objectivity, charges which cannot be refuted out of hand.[1] Nevertheless, such data reveal unique insights, too. Only the learners themselves can allow us to glimpse their attitudes, judgments, and perceptions. The

relationship between students' beliefs and their actions reveals which behaviors students themselves may wish to modify, which objectives they pursue and thus, whether teachers could guide them toward more suitable alternatives. Moreover, reliance on self-reports allows researchers to include many more participants than possible through an observational approach. As a consequence, such data permit large-scale patterns to emerge. In sum, a questionnaire-type approach does not supplant but complements and guides observational studies.

This study is not intended to prescribe whether and when to permit the L1 in the classroom. Answers to that question will have to vary according to the parameters and objectives of individual programs. There is little to be gained from general pronouncements. Rather, I wish to share with the reader the responses of the students in one particular program. Specifically, I asked learners about their views on the following issues, here rendered in the form of summative research questions:

1. Do students at three different levels of language study desire different degrees of L1 as compared to L2 use, by students and teachers, respectively?
2. How does desired language use relate to observed language use for students and teachers, respectively?
3. Are gaps between desired and observed language use significant?
4. For which tasks do students express a particularly strong preference for the L1?
5. For which learning tasks do students express a particularly strong preference for the L2?
6. How do learners at the three different levels of study vary in their language preferences for specific tasks?
7. Which common functions can be determined for those tasks for which learners express the same language preference, at each of the three different levels of language study, respectively?

I will first review pertinent literature, with a special emphasis on the functionalities of L1 and L2 use. Then, I will analyze the responses to a 158-item questionnaire of 330 learners of German, enrolled at three different levels. Finally, I will describe the limitations of this particular study and conclude with considerations for language program direction.

Research on Code-Switching and Diglossia in Foreign Language Learning

Research on code-switching, and more particularly, diglossia, in foreign language classrooms occupies a somewhat peculiar position by comparison to other topics, such as grammar or vocabulary learning. Many practitioners and researchers would wish that the L1 simply not occur at all in the foreign language classroom. In this view, L1 use makes not only for poor pedagogical practice but also for a questionable research focus. Much of the research which does exist, emphasizes ways to reduce L1 use and furthermore assumes heavy top-down interference in classroom management, such as in the form of "no-first-language policies" (e.g., Duff and Polio 1990; Polio and Duff 1994; Polio 1994). To all who consider the L1 anathema, a study such as this one does not make sense, for several reasons: (1) This study assumes that L1 indeed is being used in foreign language classrooms. (2) It alleges systematic L1 use rather than random occurrences of code-switching and hence sees the L1 as fulfilling certain linguistic as well as social functions. (3) It seeks to describe patterns rather than suggest means of altering them. (4) Its very insistence on description over prescription flows from a strong belief in the force of motivation, which at the same time calls into question the effectiveness of programmatic language use policies.

Blyth (1995) comprehensively reviews how code-switching in the foreign language classroom has been—unjustly—cast in a negative light. Auerbach (1993) provides a similar perspective from the vantage point of L2 teaching. Both researchers, along with others, such as Cook (1999, 2001) and Kramsch (1998), challenge the view of monolingualism as the foundation of a speech community. Indeed, Cook in a recent paper (2001) sums up the long history of stigmatizing L1 use in foreign language classrooms, when he observes that (p. 405) "Like nature, the L1 creeps back in, however many times you throw it out with a pitch fork." These are some recent works which signal a change in attitude. While the issue of L1 use is probably still far from being palatable to all, at least it is beginning to reach a broader audience.

One of the paradoxes of a strictly monolingual classroom is the idea that the goal of bilingualism is to be achieved via monolingualism. Cook (2001, p. 407) here distinguishes between two views of bilingualism: (1) coordinate bilingualism, in which the L1 is to be kept separate from the second and (2) compound bilingualism, in which the two languages are to form one single system. Cook concludes on the basis of prior research (pp. 407–410) that we process the L2 in accordance with the compound model. Consequently, it is futile to discuss whether language teaching methodology should approve or

disprove of what we simply do. In that sense, a bilingual classroom, in which both the L1 and the L2 are used, accommodates inevitable natural inclinations. It also acknowledges the fundamental but often neglected difference between L1 and L2 learners i.e., that L2 learners already know another language

Although it is difficult to ascertain specific numbers, I would estimate that to date the majority of foreign language teachers believe, or at least profess, that the L1 is to be avoided. Researchers such as Duff and Polio (1990) support this view (p. 162-163). A strict no-first-language policy, however, raises a number of questions, such as the following:

(1) ***How does one define "language"?*** Is one to include mental speech or self-talk, such as referred to in the Vygotskyan tradition (e.g., Aljaafreh and Lantolf 1994; Lantolf and Appel 1994; McCafferty 1994; Anton and DiCamilla, 1998, 1999), for which at least beginning but perhaps even advanced learners (see Qi 1998) likely use their L1? Should one distinguish between written and oral language, as does Wells (1998, p.351) in his response to Anton and DiCamilla (1998)? Several studies show the benefits of planning written foreign language output in the L1 (e.g., Devine, Railey, and Boshoff 1993; Kobayashi and Rinnert 1994; Osburne 1986; Osburne and Harss-Covalski 1991; Qi 1998; Susser 1994). What about separating language reception from language production? Scholars here describe possible advantages of the L1 in the development of foreign language receptive skills (e.g., Bacon 1989; Bernhardt 1991; Kern 1994; Lee 1986; Swaffar 1988; Swaffar, Arens and Byrnes 1991)?[2]

(2) ***Is a no-first-language policy effective in the face of learners' and teaching assistants' strong convictions, possibly contrary to the policy?*** Most teaching assistants direct their own classes and hence ultimately decide whether and how to put into practice the program prescribed by their supervisors. Auerbach (1993, p. 14), Duff and Polio (1990), Zephir and Chirol (1993) show how difficult it is to alter, by mere edict, practices rooted in teachers' own convictions. Many of us are all too keenly aware of how many charades we come to observe every semester: Teaching assistants and students are apt to conspire in the reenactment of the "perfect," albeit rather atypical class meeting for the sake of a visitor. The reigns of policy can be slipped quite easily, so policy ought to coincide with belief if possible. Moreover, just as program supervisors struggle to convince teaching assistants of their own wisdom and that of departmental rules, the teaching assistants themselves face the same problem with their students.

With the advent of communicative, proficiency-oriented teaching, an approach which favors goals over specific methodological prescriptions, uncertainties have arisen, for both teachers and students.[3] Some teachers find themselves in a methodological vacuum (e.g., Sato and Kleinsasser 1999, pp. 501–505). Students, for the most part, remain unaware of the theoretical considerations which drive language teaching and, consequently, learners have trouble interpreting what they experience in the classroom. As Platt and Brooks (1994) demonstrate, students interpret the parameters of communicative tasks according to their own beliefs and objectives. One may claim that such uncertainties are exactly what makes rules necessary. I would argue that uncertainties should lead to discussion and careful consideration, based on specific parameters, of the most important beliefs of the participants.

(3) ***What is the rationale underlying a no-first-language policy?*** With this issue, we return to the core of the debate. Blyth (1995) argued against such a policy which contradicts the realities of the foreign language classroom as a diglossic speech community. In addition, one should carefully weigh the quantity and function of L1 and L2 use.

The Quantity of L1 Use

Researchers such as Charlene Polio and Patricia Duff (e.g., Polio 1994, pp.154–155) have vehemently urged practitioners to restrict the use of the L1, particularly in foreign language settings. They view the use of the L1 as diametrically opposed to that of the L2 and blame students' failure to transcend the intermediate level of proficiency to lack of L2 input (p. 313). Duff and Polio (1990) measured the use of the L2 by teachers of thirteen different foreign languages at the University of California at Los Angeles. They were dissatisfied with the overall relatively low rate of L2 produced by the teachers. Duff and Polio implored teachers not to resort to L1 use. Instead teachers were to adjust their L2 use to match the students' level of comprehension. In other words, Polio and Duff advocated input modification. But just as one may argue that it is better to forbid teachers (especially graduate students) the use of L1 altogether, for fear that they may get carried away, so one may see similar dangers in the use of modified input. Moreover, the assumption that very low levels of L1 use will lead to "better" L2 use needs to be questioned with regard to not only teachers but also learners. Platt and Brooks (1994) show at numerous examples how students deal with or rather unravel a supposedly input-rich environment. Without resorting to their L1, students still managed to evade meaningful second-language use. They interpreted tasks minimally,

i.e., they neglected interaction in favor of a quick solution to a given problem; they used single words and parataxis instead of taking more complete turns; and they communicated extensively with non-verbal means. Legenhausen (1991, p. 70) describes a "principle of balance": Among (German) high school students of French, learners who used complex L1 utterances in what had been intended as L2 conversations were more likely to use equally complex L2. Conversely, learners who interspersed their conversations with short and simple L1 utterances relied on equally simple and short L2.

In summary, L1 and L2 use may not relate to each other in a simple equation. A sharp decrease in the use of the L1 may not lead to an increase in either the quantity or the quality of the L2. In the same vein, poor L2 use cannot be attributed solely to occurrences of the L1.

The Functions of L1

Even if one accepts that L1 does not necessarily deprive learners of appropriate amounts of L2 input and output, one still needs to examine other potential "intrusions" of the L1. Language fulfills certain functions, some of them particular to a classroom, such as giving instructions and feedback, or practicing the language itself. Hancock (1997), for examples, describes how language learners—sometimes subconsciously—distinguish between "pedagogical" functions and "real" functions. The former cover rehearsal functions, such as language practice. The latter serve a purpose which has observable and often immediate consequences, that is, they serve true communicative needs. For example, instructions, explanations, social conventions, or feedback regulate the students' behavior and contribute directly to students' success, e.g., good grades. One could expect that students are more willing to take linguistic risks, i.e., use the L2, with "pedagogical" functions. They may desire less ambiguity, i.e., more L1, for "real" functions. The L1 would thus "intrude" in as far is it becomes the vehicle of "real" communication, and thereby relegates the L2 to perpetual rehearsal status. Indeed, other research supports this prediction.

Self-Talk

Hancock (1997, pp. 238–229) shows that learners use the L1 when talking to themselves aloud. Piasecka (1986) describes how learners' personae are rooted in their L1, through which they also organize thought. Blyth (1995, pp. 152–153) acknowledges that the L1 cannot be banished from a learner's mind; Platt and Brooks (1994, p. 506) observed episodes of self-talk as a means of mediating or redirecting one's own activity. For Anton and DiCamilla (1998,1999), who adhere to a Vygotskian framework, self-talk ("private speech") occurs

naturally in collaborative interaction among learners. Here, the L1 "emerges not only as a device to generate content and to reflect on the material produced but, more importantly, as a means to create a social and cognitive space in which learners are able to provide each other and themselves with help throughout the task." (1998, pp. 337–338). These themes of meta-talk, genuine interest in the message, and the social self recur in other studies.

Meta-Talk

Hancock (1997), Legenhausen (1991), and Platt and Brooks (1994), among others, document instances of learners who use the L1 when they define situations or talk about instructions, procedures, or negotiation of turns. These same researchers show meta-language talk about linguistic gaps, questions, needs, etc., to be executed in the L1 as well. Platt and Brooks (1994) observed that teachers frequently give directions in the L1. Many practitioners (e.g., Auerbach 1993) consider acceptable the use of the L1 to talk about the task and the linguistic system itself. For Anton and DiCamilla (1998,1999) the L1 is an important tool in scaffolding, i.e., in "semiotic interactions" (1998, p. 319) in which an "expert and a novice [are] engaged in a problem solving-task" (1998, p. 318). The L1 here becomes the voice of the expert. Lastly, Qi (1998, p. 429) finds that his subject was likely to use the L1 "to initiate a thinking episode" in composing tasks with "high-level knowledge demands" (p. 428).

The "Real Message"

For some learners, talk about the language, i.e., meta-talk, represents what they understand language learning to really be all about. Research indicates that learners generally use the L1 when they want to fulfill genuinely communicative rather than pedagogical or practice functions (e.g., Hancock 1997; Legenhausen 1991). As a consequence, variables such as familiarity with the interlocutor and the inspirational force of the topic (Hancock 1997, p. 232), "breaking frame" (i.e., stepping outside one's persona prescribed by a part in a role play; Hancock 1997, p. 229), or the strong desire to solve an intellectually challenging task (Platt and Brooks 1994, p. 504) can compel learners to use the L1 just as much as can the need to resolve local linguistic shortcomings (e.g., Legenhausen 1991, p. 61).

The Social Self

Anton and DiCamilla (1998,1999) describe how the L1 not only fulfills an intra-psychological, cognitive function but also an "intersubjective", social one (e.g., 1998, p. 327). Hancock (1997, p. 229) describes

how the L1 is chosen for jokes or other attempts at relating to an interlocutor socially. Platt and Brooks (1994) document how foreign language teachers, whose L1 is not English, sometimes deliberately use faulty English to establish an empathic connection with their students. Blyth (1995, pp. 152-153) and Collingham (1988) propose that the use of L1 reduces learners' anxiety and validates them as complete, articulate persons.

Other researchers argue from a broader, cultural context, i.e., how language learners must reconcile competing and sometimes conflicting personae and world views, respectively aligned with the L1 and the L2. Lin (1999), in her study of four classes of Cantonese speakers learning English in Hong Kong, concludes that (p. 410) "what matters is not whether a teacher uses the L1 or the L2 but rather how a teacher uses either language to connect with students and helps them transform their attitudes, dispositions, skills, and self-image—their habitus or social world." The role of the L1 in preserving one's identity in linguistically and culturally fluid situations is further discussed by Canagarajah (1999a and b). Similarly, Brown (1993, p. 513) speaks of a "(second) language ego" whose presence "can easily create within the learner a sense of fragility, defensiveness, and a raising of inhibitions."

Classroom Management and Grammar

The teacher's goals nonewithstanding, for many students, the syllabus, grammar instruction and, ultimately, grades, represent the essence of the foreign language learning experience. In these contexts, Brucker (1992), Collingham (1988), and Piasecka (1986) recommend the use of the L1. Not surprisingly, researchers have paid close attention to the use of the L1 in grammar teaching.

Polio and Duff (1994, p. 322) report the following motivations for teachers to use the L1: a lack of cognates for grammar terms in English[4]; a great distance between the L1 and the L2; the desire to cover material more quickly; and the difficulty of making the transition between textbook grammar explanations in the L1 and corresponding classroom work in the L2. So as to avoid the use of the L1, Duff and Polio (1990, pp. 162–163) recommend, among other solutions, for teachers to provide in the L1 supplementary materials on grammar; to explicitly teach and then use grammatical terms in the L2; and to establish brief periods in which students can use the L1 for clarification purposes. These recommendations, however, may leave teachers burdened with the task of guiding their students from L1, skill-getting grammar instruction to L2, skill-using activities.

Up to now we have examined L1 use according to communicative objectives. However, additional distinctions are necessary. Blyth

(1995, pp. 155–157) describes three different basic patterns of L1/ L2 distribution in bilingual education: (1) submersion/immersion; (2) separation (a diglossic approach); and (3) concurrent usage (random flip-flopping; concurrent translation; and preview/review techniques). Clearly, a functional distribution is relevant only for the second, the diglossic, approach. Moreover, an examination of functional language use also needs to consider the role of locality and setting, speaker, and speaker groupings.

Locality

Earlier we noted that the more learners distance themselves from the didactic goal, the more likely they are to use the L1. Similarly, practitioners often notice that the more directly a setting relates to instructional purposes and the more closely it reflects the social structure of academia, the greater the perceived appropriateness of the L2. For example, few challenge the idea that the unmarked means of communication in the foreign language classroom is the L2. Nevertheless, for many, the ringing bell and subsequent exit from the classroom signal an incentive to increase the use of the L1 or to abandon the L2 altogether. In this regard, the classroom is perceived differently from the teacher's office or from the rest of campus or from any other locality.

Speaker and Speaker Groupings

Polio and Duff (1994, p. 321) observe an "interactive effect" for the speaker role, in which a student begins speaking in the L1 and the teacher responds or continues alike[5]. The underlying premise, also mentioned by Zephir and Chirol (1993), is that it is permissible for students but not teachers to initiate a switch into the L1. Duff and Polio (1990, p. 162) very specifically include among their recommendations that students be permitted to speak English when necessary. Generally, and probably because of hypotheses regarding role-modeling, linguistic need, and anxiety, students enjoy greater freedom in choosing the language of communication than do teachers. Speaker groupings constitute another variable. Whether a teacher addresses the whole class or an individual student (e.g., during peer work) will influence whether she or he uses the L1 or the L2. Similarly, whether a student speaks with another in the open forum or in a pair activity will also correspond to different linguistic behaviors.

In summary, distributional patterns of L1 and L2 can be described according to certain language functions, encompassing, among others, the following: communicative objective, locality, speaker, and speaker groupings.

Method

The study was conducted at the University of Wisconsin-Madison in the sixth and seventh weeks of classes of a fall semester so that students had had plenty of opportunity to assess typical language use in their respective courses. The 158 questionnaire items reflected constellations of variables which earlier research had proposed to influence language choice (see Appendix A)[6]. These variables included discourse objectives, media, speakers, interlocutors, and localities. The items comprised four clusters: (1) student language use as observed by the students (36 items); (2) student language use as desired by the students (36 items); (3) teacher language use as observed by the students (43 items); and (4) teacher language use as desired by the students (43 items). Item clusters relating to student and teacher language use contained similar but not identical item sets because students and teachers are not expected to perform exactly the same functions. Nevertheless, mirror image formulations were preserved as much as reasonable, for purposes of later cross-comparisons.[7] Reliability (Cronbach) coefficients were computed for the questionnaire in its entirety and for each cluster separately. All reliability coefficients exceeded 0.9. The questionnaire offered a 5-point Likert scale response system, with the following distinctions: 1 = the L1 is the most appropriate/commonly used language; 2 = the L1 is more appropriate/commonly used than the L2; 3 (the neutral score) = the L1 and L2 are equally appropriate/commonly used; 4 = the L2 is more appropriate/commonly used than the L1; 5 = the L2 is the most appropriate/commonly used language. In sum, responses on the lower end of the scale implied a preference for the L1, responses on the higher end a preference for the L2[8]. These formulations did not solicit students' agreement or disagreement with different propositions but instead asked them to choose from diametrically opposed positions or a neutral answer.[9]

Each instructor received a complete package of materials for each of their students: questionnaires, scantron sheets, and a letter which described the objective of this study and explained that responses would be strictly anonymous and in no way affect the students' grades or the evaluation the teaching assistant would receive from the department.[10] In accordance with the requirements of the university's humans subjects review committee, teachers were free to choose whether their classes would participate in the study. If they chose to do so, they were encouraged to offer their students incentives (e.g., extra credit) for their participation. Instructors had a choice of administering the questionnaire during a 50-minute class period, or

alternatively, sending it home with students. It was stressed that a sufficient amount of time was necessary to ensure well-considered responses. Participating instructors anonymously placed the completed materials in the researcher's mail-box. As an effect of this procedure, it is unclear exactly how many and which of the department's teaching assistants took part with their classes. [11] Each student subject received a copy of the questionnaire and a computer-readable answer ("scantron") sheet into which to enter responses. All but a few respondents were native speakers of English. Of a total of 330 respondents, 104 were enrolled in the first year; 122 in the second; and 104 in the third.[12] This number constitutes a response rate of approximately 65% for each year of study.

The department under investigation follows a communicative four-skills curriculum spanning the entire program. Three different faculty members supervise teaching assistants at each of the following levels, respectively: first and second semester; third and fourth semester; and fifth semester.[13] Teaching assistants receive extensive training at each new course level. The department has a non-specific policy with regard to the use of the L1, i.e., a little-known document sets forth that "no inappropriate uses" are to occur, although there is no specification of what exactly this means. Generally, teaching assistants believe that they are expected to use increasingly less of the L1 as they teach at higher levels. A seminar study conducted by a graduate and undergraduate student research team showed that teaching assistants indeed use progressively less L1, at least when observed by peers. [14] To judge from personal observations, classes vary in the relative occurrence of the L1 not only by level but also by instructor and particular student group. Informal interviews with teaching assistants showed that some delineate L1 use quite explicitly to their students and for themselves, e.g. , through time-outs, special signals, or an agreement spelled out at the beginning of the semester that the L1 may be used for certain tasks. Other teaching assistants either said that they hardly use the L1 at all or that they are unaware of the functions that L1 plays in their classrooms. It is generally true, however, that—at least in the presence of visitors—the L1 is used quite sparingly.

Analyses and Results

The university's Center for Testing and Evaluation provided equipment and personnel for data analysis. Responses were treated and analyzed separately for each year of study (1, 2, 3) since differing proficiency levels may affect views on the appropriateness of L1. For the sake of clarity and brevity, analyses and results will be presented

together for all three levels for each of seven research questions. The level of statistical significance for all tests was set at $p < .05$. A summative discussion of results, organized by research question, follows.

Question 1: *Do students at three different levels of language study desire different degrees of L1 as compared to L2 use, by students and teachers, respectively?* Cluster means were computed for each of the twelve clusters (2 [observed and desired] x 2 [teacher and students] x 3 [years 1, 2, 3]). A "cluster mean" corresponds with the sum total of the means of all items belonging to a cluster.[15] Table 1 shows the results of one-way analyses of variance, in which the three populations (year 1, year 2, year 3) were compared. Significant differences were found in each of these four categories: the language use **desired** for students and teachers, respectively (categories 1 & 2), and the language use **observed** for students and teachers, respectively (categories 3 & 4). As seen later in Tables 3a and 3b, there was a steady trend toward a preference for the L2 as students progressed in their language learning.[16]

Question 2: *How does desired language use relate to observed language use for students and teachers, respectively?* Scores of items clusters reporting on desired language use were correlated with scores of their matching counterparts on observed language use. Teacher and student language use were treated separately. Responses were analyzed in four ways: broken down by each year of study (1, 2, 3) and then taking all three years together. Table 2 shows the results. All correlations were significant but not very strong, although the correlation coefficients between desired and observed language use for both students and teachers gradually strengthened with an increase in year of study. These results leave open why exactly the strength of correlations between desired and observed language use grew from year to year. Is it because students became more proficient so that both teachers and students began to come close to desired levels of L2 use? Or did students (and perhaps, teachers, too) become more realistic in their expectations? Or both? We also note that students' desired and observed language use correlated more strongly (in the students' minds) than did teachers', a point which is further pursued in Question 3.

Question 3: *Are gaps between desired and observed language use for students and teachers, respectively, significant?*[17] Table 3a shows the results of two-tailed, two-sample t-tests which compared cluster means of desired with that of observed language behavior, broken down by year of study. With one exception, significant differences between desired and observed language use were found for both, teachers and

Table 1
Differences Among Mean Sums Across Three Populations (Year 1, Year 2, Year 3) [One-Way ANOVA]

Year 1 vs. 2 vs. 3	Desired Teacher Language Use [Items 1–36]	Desired Student Language Use [Items 37–79]	Observed Teacher Language Use Items 80–115]	Observed Teacher Language Use [Items 116–158]
F	55.94	54.37	55.09	58.51
df				
Between Groups	2	2	2	2
Within Groups	327	327	327	327
significance	.0001	.0001	.0001	.0001

Table 2
Correlations Between Desired and Observed Language Use

Correlations	Year 1		Year 2		Year 3		All	
	Coeff.	p <	Coeff.	p <	Coeff.	p <	Coeff.	p <
For Teachers [Items 1-36/80-115]	.243	.05	.309	.01	.377	.01	.466	.01
For Students [Items 37-79/116-158]	.325	.01	.549	.01	.553	.01	.607	.01

students in the three populations. The direction of the gap, however, was different: Teachers were consistently found to tend toward the L2 more strongly than their students desired. Students, by comparison, reported that they used the L1 more than they themselves wanted to. Moreover, cluster means for desired and observed language use of both teachers and students increased gradually, i.e., tended more strongly toward the L2, with each year of study. The gap between cluster means of desired and observed teacher language use at 13.51 (or, on average, .375 per item) was largest for **second** year, as compared to 5.91 (.164 per item) for year 3 and 4.23 (.118 per item) for year 1. Indeed the one comparison which yielded no significant difference concerned the desired versus observed language use of teachers in first year. The same comparison for year 3 did show a significant difference although the degree of statistical significance was substantially lower than for the remainder of comparisons. An explanation for these results may be found in the curriculum: Whereas in year 1 much of language instruction centers around everyday situations, in year 2 (and then, 3) the focus switches to more intense work with authentic texts, often on abstract topics. Accordingly, teachers begin using language which is broader and less predictable in form and context. Thus, the results pertaining to second year likely reflect transitional difficulties.[18]

The gap between cluster means for desired as compared to observed language use was larger for students than for teachers in each year of study. It was larger for year 1 students at 30.64 (or .713 per item) than for year 2 students at 17.58 (or .409 per item) or than year 3 students at 20.04 (or .466 per item). It would have been misleading to calculate whether differences in the sum of means between teacher and student language use were significant because student and teacher clusters contained a different number and also slightly different types of items.

In an additional step, I explored the following hypothesis: *All subjects will find the L1 and the L2 equally appropriate for all items in a cluster.*

In this assumption, each item would be assigned the neutral score, i.e., 3, by all respondents and hence show a mean of 3 for each item. The sum of null-hypothetical cluster means were computed by multiplying the number of items in each cluster by 3. These null-hypothetical cluster mean sums were then compared with actual cluster mean sums, as shown in Table 3b. All but two comparisons showed the actual mean sum exceeding the null-hypothetical mean sum, i.e., an actual preference for the L2. The two exceptions were students' observed language use in first year (99.56 as compared to 129) and in second year (124.30 as compared to 129).

Table 3a
Comparisons Between Desired and Observed Language Use [Two-Tailed, Two-Sample t-Tests]

	Year 1 $n = 104$				Year 2 $n = 122$				Year 3 $n = 104$			
Comparisons	**Sum of Means**	***t***	***df***	***p <***	**Sum of Means**	***t***	***df***	***p <***	**Sum of Means**	***t***	***df***	***p <***
Desired Teacher Lang. Use [Items 1–36]	115.64				125.19				147.06			
Observed Teacher Lang. Use [Items 80–115]	119.87	-1.29	206	n.s.	138.71	-4.48	242	.0001	152.97	-2.17	206	.05
Desired Student Lang. Use [Items 37–79]	130.20				141.96				169.40			
Observed Student Lang. Use [Items 116–158]	99.56	7.48	206	.0001	124.38	4.25	242	.0001	149.36	4.86	206	.0001

Table 3b
Comparisons Between Actual and Hypothetical Sums of Means

Comparisons	Year 1 $n = 104$ Actual SoMs	Year 1 $n = 104$ Hypothetical SoMs	Year 1 $n = 104$ SD	Year 2 $n = 122$ Actual SoMS	Year 2 $n = 122$ Hypothetical SoMs	Year 2 $n = 122$ SD	Year 3 $n = 104$ Actual SoMs	Year 3 $n = 104$ Hypothetical SoMs	Year 3 $n = 104$ SD
Desired Teacher Lang. Use [Items 1-36]	115.64	108	22.32	125.19	108	23.62	147.06	108	19.63
Observed Teacher Lang. Use [Items 80-115]	119.87	108	24.79	138.71	108	23.55	152.97	108	19.69
Desired Student Lang. Use [Items 37-79]	130.20	129	28.78	141.96	129	27.82	169.40	129	27.09
Observed Student Lang. Use [Items 116-158]	99.56	129	30.29	124.38	129	36.22	149.36	129	32.24

Question 4: ***For which tasks do students express a particularly strong preference for the L2, i.e., which item have extremely high means?*** Items in each cluster were ranked, again separately by year of study. Extremely high scores were selected based on natural breaks. Rank numbers progress from top-down, i.e., rank 1 signifies the highest ranking item. Table 4 shows students' reports on the desired and observed language use of students as well as of teachers in the form of single item means. Items in boldface are those which hold extreme ranks in both desired and observed language use, i.e., identify a correspondence between parallel items listed under two separate headings.

With regard to teacher language use, a preference for the L2 (i.e., items with high means) concerned practice, review, and routines—in short, predictable and bounded language—and were shared between the desired and observed language use categories. However, in reference to desired but not to observed language use, a preference for the L2 emerged for socially-oriented language. Overall, the types of items which were associated with a preference for L2 use by the teacher were remarkably consistent across the three years of study. When examining the preference for L2 use by students, similar patterns emerged: Students' observed and desired language use in all three years centered around routines and limited, practice and review-type language use. Year 3 showed an expanded repertoire: Students reported using and desiring the L2 for more creative and unrestricted purposes, i.e., peer interaction and work with reading texts. In general, a preference for the L2 was present from year 1 but increased in scope and strength over the program sequence. By year 3, with the exception of observed student language use, item means lay well above 4.5.

Question 5: ***For which tasks do students express a particularly strong preference for the L1, i.e., which items have extremely low means?*** Again, items in each cluster were ranked, broken down by year of study. Extremely low scores were selected based on natural breaks. Table 5, mirror images of Table 4 in format, show students' responses. However, different from Tables 4a and 4b, rank numbers here are counted from the bottom up, i.e., rank 1 indicates the lowest ranking item. Again, items in boldface are those which hold extreme ranks in both desired **and** observed language use, i.e., identify a correspondence between parallel items listed under two separate headings.

Table 4
Items Tending toward the Second Language
(Extremely High Item Means)

	Year 1 $n = 104$ Rank (mean)	Year 2 $n = 122$ Rank (mean)	Year 3 $n = 104$ Rank (mean)
Students on Teacher Language Use			
Desired Language Use [Items 1–36]			
12. conducting grammar practice	**4 (4.02)**	**5 (4.07)**	NA
14. reviewing vocabulary	**2 (4.36)**	**2 (4.32)**	3 (4.69)
15. conducting vocabulary practice	**3 (4.24)**	**3 (4.24)**	4 (4.67)
16. making small talk with the class	5 (3.85)	4 (4.08)	5 (4.59)
22. talking to students as they do group or pair work	NA	NA	1 (4.87)
31. performing routines (greeting students, etc.)	**1 (4.41)**	**1 (4.46)**	**1 (4.87)**
Observed Language Use [Items 80–115]			
90. reviewing grammar	NA	3 (4.43)	2 (4.80)
91. conducting grammar practice	**4 (4.13)**	**5 (4.426)**	NA
93. reviewing vocabulary	**2 (4.27)**	**2 (4.48)**	NA
94. conducting vocabulary practice	**3 (4.22)**	**3 (4.43)**	NA
110. performing routines (greeting students, etc.)	**1 (4.42)**	**1 (4.63)**	**1 (4.90)**
Students on Student Language Use			
Desired Language Use [Items 37–79]			
39. when the class practices grammar	**3 (3.88)**	**3 (4.05)**	**3 (4.54)**
40. practicing grammar in peer work	5 (3.86)	5 (3.92)	NA
43. when the class practices vocabulary	**1 (4.01)**	2 (4.10)	2 (4.60)
44. practicing vocabulary in peer work	**4 (3.87)**	NA	3 (4.54)
60. in role play with each other	NA	4 (4.03)	3 (4.54)
76. performing routines, such as greeting the teacher, etc.	**2 (3.93)**	**1 (4.20)**	**1 (4.63)**
Observed Language Use [Items 116–158]			
118. when the class practices grammar	**2 (3.57)**	**2 (3.94)**	**5 (4.41)**
122. when the class practices vocabulary	**1 (3.78)**	1 (3.99)	2 (4.51)
123. when they practice vocabulary in peer work	**4 (3.31)**	NA	NA

Table 4 (*continued*)

	Year 1 $n = 104$ Rank (mean)	Year 2 $n = 122$ Rank (mean)	Year 3 $n = 104$ Rank (mean)
142. when the teacher checks how well students comprehended a reading	NA	NA	3 (4.46)
144. when the class discusses issues raised in a reading	NA	NA	1 (4.53)
155. when performing routines, such as greeting the teacher	**3 (3.37)**	**3 (3.80)**	**4 (4.43)**

Table 5
Items Tending toward the First Language (Extremely Low Item Means)

	Year 1 $n = 104$ Rank (mean)	Year 2 $n = 122$ Rank (mean)	Year 3 $n = 104$ Rank (mean)
Students on Teacher Language Use			
Desired Language Use [Items 1–36]			
3. explaining about an upcoming test	2 (2.32)	4 (2.60)	NA
4. explaining a test students are just taking	3 (2.40)	5 (2.77)	NA
6. explaining the syllabus at the beginning of the course	**1 (1.85)**	**1 (2.27)**	NA
10. talking about a new grammar point	4 (2.45)	NA	NA
35. in office hours	**6 (2.68)**	**3 (2.58)**	**1 (2.73)**
36. when s/he runs into students outside of class	**5 (2.57)**	**2 (2.48)**	**2 (2.97)**
Observed Language Use [Items 80–115]			
85. explaining the syllabus at the beginning of the course	**3 (2.13)**	**3 (2.78)**	NA
114. in office hours	**2 (1.86)**	**1 (1.99)**	**1 (1.71)**
115. when s/he runs into students outside of class	**1 (1.75)**	**2 (2.17)**	**2 (1.85)**

(*continued*)

Table 5 (*continued*)

	Year 1 $n = 104$ Rank (mean)	Year 2 $n = 122$ Rank (mean)	Year 3 $n = 104$ Rank (mean)
Students on Student Language Use			
Desired Language Use [Items 37–79]			
37. asking the teacher questions about a new grammar point	4 (2.53)	NA	NA
49. asking the teacher about instructions on a test	1 (2.24)	5 (2.66)	NA
50. asking the teacher about the syllabus or course	2 (2.25)	4 (2.65)	NA
67. discussing with the teacher (in class) how the course is going for them	5 (2.54)	NA	NA
77. in office hours	**6 (2.56)**	**3 (2.63)**	**2 (2.80)**
78. when running into the teacher outside of class	**7 (2.63)**	**2 (2.60)**	**3 (2.87)**
79. when running into each other outside of class	**3 (2.30)**	**1 (2.12)**	**1 (2.20)**
Observed Language Use [Items 116–158]			
151. when giving **written** feedback on others' **written** work	5 (1.52)	NA	NA
153. when giving **written** feedback on others' **speaking**	4 (1.47)	NA	NA
154. when giving **oral** feedback on others' **speaking**	6 (1.60)	NA	NA
156. in office hours	**1 (1.22)**	**1 (1.47)**	**1 (1.42)**
157. when running into the teacher outside of class	**2 (1.28)**	**3 (1.61)**	**3 (1.56)**
158. when running into each other outside of class	**3 (1.33)**	**1 (1.47)**	**2 (1.48)**

As for desired teacher language use, students in years 1 and 2 both preferred the L1 when it came to explaining graded outcomes and meetings outside of class. Year 1 students also preferred the L1 for the introduction of a grammar point. Year 3 students had restricted their first-language preferences to non-classroom based interactions. Looking at observed language use, teachers seemed to accommodate these expectations in years 1 and 2. In these years, teachers were said to explain the syllabus in the L1, teachers at all three levels to use the L1 outside of class. With regard to desired student language use, the preference for the L1 outside of class persisted through all three years. In addition, students in years 1 and 2 would have liked to ask questions

and discuss the course in their L1. This trend emerged in more items among year 1 than year 2 students. Year 1 students further named peer feedback as an activity in which they would like to use the L1.

Question 6 ***How do learners at three different levels of language study vary in their language preferences for specific tasks?*** This question was to ascertain which functions or tasks showed an association between (assumed) language proficiency and language preference. Chi-square tests[19] were applied in the comparison of responses across the three populations for each item individually. To render the data more meaningful, the marginal scores on either side of the neutral score (i.e., 3) were collapsed so that scores of 1 and 2 were counted together as were scores of 4 and 5. The neutral score (3) was preserved.

As Table 6 shows, only six out of 158 items failed to show significant distinctions among years 1, 2, and 3. All but one of these items

Table 6
Items Which Did NOT Show Significant Differences ($p > .05$) Across the 3 Populations and Percentage of Subjects in Certain Response Categories

Item		Year 1 $n = 104$ (in %)	Year 2 $n = 122$ (in %)	Year 3 $n = 104$ (in%)
12 The teacher should use [...] when conducting grammar practice.	*proL2*	79.80	77.87	90.38
35 The teacher should use [...] in office hours.	*pro L2*	16.50	13.93	19.23
	neutral	40.78	41.80	33.60
77 Students should use [...] when visiting the teacher's office hours.	*pro L1*	43.68	40.49	34.62
	pro L2	13.59	12.39	24.04
79 Students should use [...] when running into each other outside of class.	*proL1*	56.31	59.84	61.54
115 The teacher typically uses [...] when s/he runs into students outside of class.	*pro L1*	43.48	34.88	37.09
	omitted	33.65	29.51	40.38
158 I (a student) typically use [...] when I run into other students outside of class.	*pro L1*	88.04	82.30	84.54

(the teacher conducting grammar practice) revealed a distinct preference for the L1. These were the same five items which described contact between the teacher and students or among students outside the classroom. For each item, the most pertinent distributions among scores are reported. The label "pro L2" refers to learners who assigned scores of 4 and 5; the label "pro L1" to learners who gave scores of 1 and 2; and the label "neutral" to learners who preferred neither the L1 nor the L2.

Question 7: *Which common features (functions) can be determined for those tasks for which learners express the same language preference, at each of the three levels of language study, respectively?* This question sought to broaden the scope of the functional perspective from single items to item groups. Descriptions by functions were further connected with ranges of item means so as to explore an association between certain functions and a preference for either the L2 or the L1. To these ends, a principal component (factor) analysis using the varimax rotation method with Kaiser normalization was carried out for each of the three populations (year 1, 2, 3), further separated by the four item clusters (desired and observed teacher and student language use). The results of the factor analysis can be viewed in Appendix B. Items which reached a coefficient of .3 were considered to be loading significantly on a factor. However, in many item clusters, definite natural breaks occurred, i.e., a certain number of items correlated at levels much higher than .3 It was decided that in the interest of establishing clear patterns, such breaks should be given proper consideration.[20] Table 7 displays the factors, now labeled, for desired teacher, observed teacher, desired student, and observed student language use, respectively. The order in which the factors are listed reflects the order of item means for each. Since not all items assigned to a factor shared the exactly same mean score, it was decided that the low end of the item mean range would be used for comparison.[21] In the instance of two factors showing the same low item means, the order of listings was based on the upper range, i.e., factors whose upper range of item means was higher follow those whose upper range of item means was lower. The different shadings in the Tables reflect where the low ends of the item mean ranges fall: in the realm of the L1; in neutral territory; or in the realm of the L2.

Further, if similarly-labeled factors emerged in each of the four language use categories (clusters), their item means were compared. Based on these comparisons, one can assess how the same factor corresponds to different or similar language use preferences for teachers and students and for desired and observed language use. If two

Table 7
Factors by the Low-End of Their Item Mean Range

Low-End Mean	Desired Teacher Language Use	Observed Teacher Language Use	Desired Student Language Use	Observed Student Language Use
		Year 1		
1				
1.3				outside class
1.5				giving feedback
1.8		outside class	socializing	
2				asking about background & instructions asking about grammar & vocabulary text comprehension & discussion
2.1		explanation		
2.2			qu. re background & instructions	
2.3	organization			
2.5			grammar questions	
2.6	outside class	feedback	chance encounters giving peer feedback	group & pair work
2.7			requesting feedback & directions	
2.8	testing & new grammar			
2.9	feedback		socializing	
3	background information	directions about tests	interaction	
3.2	comprehension & discussion			peer practice
3.3	socializing	comprehension		
			check & discussion	
3.4		hand outs socializing		
3.6				grammar practice
3.8	practice		practice	
4		practice & review		
		Year 2		
1				
1.5				outside class
2				
2.2		outside class		giving feedback
2.5		outside class		
2.6	evaluation		outside class	asking for directions & instructions

(*continued*)

Table 7, Year 2 (*continued*)

Low-End Mean	Desired Teacher Language Use	Observed Teacher Language Use	Desired Student Language Use	Observed Student Language Use
2.8			socializing with teacher in class	
2.9			giving feedback	
3			asking about language production asking about language structure	asking about background
3.1	check	feedback on speaking	socializing	
3.2	feedback	requesting back ground info		
3.3				peer practice text comprehension & discussion
3.4	comprehension & discussion		comprehension check	
3.6	practice			
3.7	socializing		practice	
3.8		explaining about A test; video & audio hand-outs		
3.9		socializing		
4		review & explanation		
		Year 3		
1				
1.7		outside class		outside class
2				
2.2				giving feedback
2.7	outside class		outside class	
2.8				peer interaction
3.2	explanation			
3.3	evaluation	video & audio feedback		video&audio
3.5				
3.6	practice		giving feedback grammar	peer practice
3.7			requesting feedback & directions	asking &socializing with the teacher
3.8			socializing	
3.9	feedback			
4				
4.1			comprehension check	grammar practice
4.2	comprehension check			
4.3	socializing			
4.4	discussion	grammar practice & vocabulary; grammar & testing	practice	
4.5		socializing		
4.7		managing peer work texts		

compared factors reflected a minimum difference of .5 in their low-end means, they will be referred to as **differentials**. In contrast, differences which do not exceed .2 will be considered **matches**.[22] Clearly, these findings are not conclusive but they do suggest interesting patterns. Most pertinently, they complement and support results of previous analyses.

General Observations

As a result of entering factor labels in a sequence determined by low-end means, Table 7 could potentially give the visual impression of a pronounced preference for the L1, i.e., with most entries in the upper half of the scale.[23] In fact, there is a gradual increase in the number of entries in the 3 and 4 (i.e., L2) range as learners progress from year 1 to year 2 to year 3. The category of low-end means of 4 and above, however, does not expand noticeably until year 3. One also notes that the factor labeled *outside class* (and its parallel entry *chance encounters outside class*) consistently hovers in low ranges, i.e., between 1.3 and 1.7. Moreover, fluctuations with regard to this label reflect no chronological order at all, i.e., do not correspond with the year of study. For example, in the category of *desired teacher language use*, the factor *outside class* corresponds with low-end means of 2.6 for year 1, 2.5 for year 2, and 2.7 for year 3. Factors relating to *practice* occupy the other, higher end of the scale, beginning with year 1 already. More specifically, items comprised under this label deal with form-focused practice, such as that pertaining to grammar and vocabulary. Clearly, in such a context, the use of the L2 is essential, even indispensable, but at the same time unlikely to be creative or spontaneous.

Tolerance of Asymmetric Interactions

Comparisons between low-end means of factors pertaining to desired student and desired teacher language use in the context of *socializing* yielded differentials of at least .5. Such differences imply that students may tolerate or even seek different standards of language use for themselves as compared to their teachers. To demonstrate, the preferences of year 1 students tended more strongly toward the L1 in their own *socializing* language (a low-end mean of 1.8) than in that of their teachers (low-end mean of 3.3). Similar differentials were found for year 2 and year 3 students, with low-end means of 3.1 and 3.8, respectively, for *socializing* by students as compared to 3.7 and 4.3, respectively, for *socializing* by teachers. This differential may indicate students' persistent willingness to place the conversational burden on teachers so that teachers, for example, ask questions in the L2 and students respond in the L1. Differentials between students and teachers were not only

found for desired but also observed language use. Language use *outside class* (year 1; year 2)*; giving feedback* (year 1, year 2; year 3)*; checking comprehension and engaging in discussions* (year 1); and *the teacher giving directions about a test* as compared to *students asking about instructions* (year 1) all fell into this category. In all areas, teachers were observed to tend more strongly toward the L2 than were the students.

Dissatisfaction with Students' Language Use

Students across all three years reported using less L2 than desired, particularly in these contexts: *asking grammar questions* (year 1); *grammar* [*practice*] (year 3); *giving feedback* (years 2 and 3); and language use *outside class* (years 2 and 3)

Dissatisfaction with Teachers' Language Use

Whereas mismatches between students' desired and observed language use consistently resulted from using too little L2, a more ambivalent situation presents itself with regard to the teachers. Similarly to how students had assessed their own actions, they expressed a desire for their teachers to use the L2 outside the classroom to a greater extent than observed (year 1 and year 3). At the same time, a juxtaposition of desired language use for *discussing evaluative procedures* with how teachers were observed to actually *explain about a test* showed that year 2 and 3 students would have liked to hear more L1.

Satisfaction with Students' Language Use

Students in year 2 reported a good match between their desired and their observed language use in two areas: *comprehension check and related discussions* and *asking about background information*.

Satisfaction with Teachers' Language Use

Students appeared to feel comfortable with their teachers' observed language use in *socializing* (years 1, 2, 3); *checking comprehension and leading related discussions* (year 1); *practice* (year 1); and *giving feedback* (years 1 and 2).

Similarities between Language Use Desired for Students and Desired for Teachers

Similar expectations regarding L1 as compared to L2 use were held of teachers and students in the following contexts: *teachers giving feedback* and *students giving and receiving feedback* (years 1 and 2); *students requesting clarification* and *teachers doing organizational work* (year 1); *language outside class* (years 1, 2, 3); and *comprehension checks* (year 3).

Similarities between Language Use Observed for Students and Observed for Teachers

Students observed that they chose the L1 or the L2 in patterns similar to those of their teachers in the following contexts: *students asking* and *teachers explaining* (year 1); activities surrounding *video and audio tapes* (year 3); and *language outside class* (year 3).

Combined with earlier findings, students appeared to use the L2 **less** than they wanted to and observed their teachers to use the L2 **more** than desirable. Students also seemed to care little about symmetry between their interactional work and that of their teachers. They did not strive to mirror their teachers in conversational roles or choice of language. Indeed, students did not see the classroom as a social arena at all. For example, their response patterns allow for grouping *socializing* with repetitive activities, which helps explain why the reported language for these types of activities tends to be the L2, for both teachers and students from year 1 on. Students also seem to tell us that communication in the classroom is really about evaluation and "knowledge", which, in turn, means the structure of the language. And genuine communication, in the students' eyes, is best conducted in the L1. Overall, these findings will please few language teachers. Even fewer will be suprised. Despite an increase in observed L2 use with each level of enrollment, the profession and these students appear separated in their views of what the communicative classroom is all about.

Limitations

Apart from the inherent shortcomings of self-reported data, described earlier, other administrative issues may have affected the outcome. For example, individuals may have dedicated more or less time to the completion of the questionnaire. The environment (inside, outside class) in which the answers were given, too, may have exercised some influence. For example, in class, students may recall their own, their peers' and their teacher's usual behaviors more readily but then again, may not be able to spend as much time thinking about the questions. Moreover, it is difficult to ascertain how the number and scope of items allow for a comprehensive and adequately differentiated assessment of actually occurring behaviors. One may argue that the large number of items could have caused test fatigue. Formulations of the items and the scales can never be guaranteed to yield identical readings among subjects or between subjects and the researcher. Neither the items nor the scale could give proper consideration to qualitatively or quantitatively precise distinctions between L1 versus L2 use. The format precluded respondents from accounting for different boundaries at which switches take place, i.e., at the discourse, paragraph, sentence, or

word levels. Cross-linguistic permeation or instances of code-mixing were also ignored. For example, students may substitute L1 words but embed them in a L2 matrix, i.e., through the use of L2 morphology. The extent of deliberateness with which L1 and L2 phonology overlap remains uncertain. Indeed, no type of language use beyond the strictly verbal has been addressed here. Distinctions between rote and creative language use can only be deduced from context and remain speculative. Contrasts between L1 and L2 scripts, formulaic language and general pragmatic concerns, have been ignored altogether. The respective roles of the L1 and L2 in mental speech or self-talk were not investigated, either.

Finally, as described earlier, this study draws on a specific sample of students. A number of special characteristics need to be considered when projecting these results onto potential outcomes for other populations:

1. The homogeneity of the population at hand was much greater than is typical of many other college campuses: Participants widely shared the same L1 (English). Nearly all were of traditional college age. Most were of European descent and had had their previous German class in high school, regardless of their current level of enrollment[23]. They were almost evenly distributed between males and females. Few of the participants will major in the L2.
2. The specific L1 (English) and L2 (German) may affect code-switching behavior, for at least three reasons: Professional organizations and training pertaining to individual foreign languages often create a language-specific teaching canon of sorts. As a result, certain tenets about good language pedagogy develop which distinguish the teaching of a given foreign language from that of another. Schulz et al. (2002) describe how the different foreign-language departments at the same institution (University of California-Berkeley) follow a variety of practices with regard to L1 use. Also, the linguistic relatedness between two languages as well as language contact and the frequency of mutual or unidirectional borrowings between two given languages in authentic situations influence the acceptability and hence the likelihood and nature of code switching in instructional settings. The structure of a given L2 may influence code-switching behavior as well. Poulisse and Bongaerts (1994), for example, found that content and function words are associated with different types of code switching when speakers of Dutch learn English.

3. Departmental characteristics deserve attention, especially the fact that the department under investigation has no explicit policy prohibiting the use of L1. This very circumstance made the study possible and influenced the results. Moreover, departmental faculty vary as to how and how often they supervise teachers, i.e., whether and how they make teachers follow concrete instructions about teaching and testing. The degree of independence teachers enjoy in setting their own policies probably corresponds to their professional status. The department described here is unique in that virtually all of its first- and second-year and many of its third-year courses are taught by teaching assistants.

It is not only difficult to generalize from particular student and teacher populations but these groups themselves can be divided into various subgroups. As discussed earlier, particularly in the absence of a departmental L1 policy, the characteristics of a speech community and its broader context become determining factors in the linguistic behavior of participants. Further analyses by sub-groups (e.g., teacher and student gender; native speaker status of the teacher; experience abroad, etc.) will no doubt provide a greater level of sophistication.

In sum, the results presented here refer to a specific sample—which itself is painted in rather broad brush strokes—and correspond to certain modes of administration and design. This study does not claim universality and cannot point to unambiguous conclusions.

Final Considerations

The students in this sample clearly viewed their speech community, the classroom, as diglossic. This functional divide generally apportioned the most pressing and genuine communicative purposes to the L1. Moreover, instances in which "real" communication was carried out in the L2 often involved asymmetric interactions, with the teacher and students playing distinctly different roles. It is unclear whether this functional split or the communicative asymmetry are dead ends or merely transitional stages before students advance to a more equitable and broader participation in the L2. Although participants in this study overall expressed a stronger preference for the L2 as the enrollment level increased, some core functions remained firmly associated with the L1. Sociolinguistic research (Barbour and Stevenson 1990, p. 218-261) tells us that societal bilingualism tends to be stable, i.e., not develop into monolingualism, as long as it is paired with diglossia. One concludes that as long as the L1 is associated with particular functions, it will persist in the L2 classroom.

How should language program policies respond to the projected inevitability of diglossia in the classroom? Should one simply ban the L1, that is, if one believes that such a policy can be enforced in fact (see the considerations described earlier in the paper)? Without a concomitant increase in L2 proficiency, the enforced exclusive use of the L1 will mean that certain language functions will have to be reduced in scope or eliminated altogether.

Perhaps it is time to ask which models we want to guide our curricular decisions. The currently preferred model, the (near-)exclusive reliance on the L2, hypothesizes a monolingual in-the-making. It deliberately disregards the stark differential between a learner's quite limited L2 capabilities and the learner's fully-developed L1. Yet, the standard bilingual, diglossic model does not fit well, either. Our classrooms are diglossic but our learners are not equally fluent in both languages. Usually only one member of the classroom speech community, the teacher, is a full-fledged bilingual. Since the teacher also holds the most powerful position in the class and commonly takes the most and the longest turns, asymmetric communication becomes all but inevitable.

The current model also draws inaccurate parallels between the L2 classroom and the target-language environment. On the one hand, it proclaims an inaccurate similarity between the two by downplaying the evaluative context and the obvious power differential between the interlocutors (students; teacher). On the other hand, the model promotes an inaccurate difference by dismissing the use of the class's lingua franca, the L1. Would not native speakers who know a visitor's L1 be considered rude if they insisted on the use of their native language in the face of severe communication problems? How can we expect our students to believe in a truly communicative classroom when communication takes a backseat to the strictures of language policy?

I am not suggesting that we should conduct our L2 classes in the L1 and simply hold a social hour. I do argue, however, that we are pretending when we tell our students that a monolingual environment filled with monolingual speakers is authentic, according to any real-life norms. Our students see through this pretense and behave accordingly. Many of us have witnessed students sacrifice the message for the sake of a particular medium. In many more cases, we will never know the gap between what a learner says or writes and what the learner really means. The L2 classroom represents a unique speech community in need of unique rules. If we want our students to associate the L2 with genuine communication, we need to incorporate it in equally genuine ways in our classrooms. And genuine inclusion

will rely on norms which develop naturally, alongside those imposed by policies.

Notes

1. Low (1999) offers a detailed description of how wording and interpretation by respondents influence the outcome of questionnaire studies.
2. Beauvois (1998) further describes how electronic media have affected code-switching behaviors in foreign language communication.
3. See Whitley (1993) for an in-depth discussion on this issue.
4. For a more thorough discussion on the matter of second versus L1 use for teaching grammatical terminology see Borg (1999).
5. In the same study, Polio and Duff showed a lack of accommodating behavior on part of the teacher, i.e., they observed few instances in which teachers used English because their students did not comprehend. The researchers attributed this insight to teachers' possibly simplifying their language use so as to prevent non-comprehension.
6. It had been previously piloted with a group of fifth-semester students who then did not participate in the study itself. Minor modifications in wording were made as a result. The revised version was shown to all teachers who were invited to participate in the study. Based on the instructors' comments, the wording of some items was altered once more.
7. Items 40 and 57 and items 44 and 58 (pertaining to desired student language use) and items 119 and 136 and items 123 and137 (pertaining to observed student language use) are nearly identical to each other. They were used to cross-check whether students were paying attention during completion of the questionnaire, i.e., whether they assigned near-identical scores—which they did.
8. The exact wording for the students referred not to "L1" but English and German instead of "L2".
9. Please refer to Low (1996) for a discussion of potentially prejudicial questionnaire formulations.
10. All but one instructor (i.e.,in one of the third-year courses) were graduate student teaching assistants. The one instructor who was not a teaching assistant did not hold a tenure-track position.
11. There is, however, the possibility that teaching assistants who felt confident that their use of L1 versus L2 adhered to the department's policy (see later in the text) were more likely to participate. This could have resulted in students' reporting that their teachers use smaller amounts of L1 than may be typical of the whole group of instructors.
12. Some of the more striking demographics of participants include the following: 70.35% had had their last German class in high school (a reflection of the retro-credit policy described also in note #24); 78.05% had received a last course grade of A; 58.96% were female but an even greater

percentage, 81.8%, were taught by a female teacher; 22.71% of had a native speaker teacher; only 7.15% had chosen or intended to major in a language; 95.8% were 23 years of age or younger; and 52.2% had never been to a German-speaking country, with 13.74% of the total sample expressing no intention of ever visiting one.

13. The researcher supervises third and fourth semester courses.

14. Reifsnyder and Rocheford (2000)

15. The sum of means was given preference over a calculation of a "mean of means" because of the discontinuous nature of the data.

16. It must be emphasized that this was not a longitudinal study. For the sake of simplicity, as we discuss results we will refer to "students progressing through the language sequence". However, we really are looking at three distinct populations, each enrolled at a different level.

17. In future research, when comparing four groups of items (two for teachers; two for instructors) with different groups of items for the groups, all scores should be converted to standard scores in order to assure more accurate comparison.

18. See Harlow and Muyskens (1994) and Tschirner (1996) for further discussions of the specific challenges of second-year foreign-language instruction.

19. In order to attenuate Type I error rate resulting from multiple Chi Square tests, in future research a stricter criterion than .05 should be used.

20. In future research, items not meeting the .3 level should not be considered.

21. This method reflects the lowest common denominator within a factor. An alternative method would have been to compute item means within a group of items united by a factor. This approach was not used for the following reasons, all related to the fear of giving an undue impression of precision which such a calculation could not realistically achieve: (1) as mentioned, different factors reflect different degrees of correlations; this calls into questions whether the mean of means would be meaningful across factors; (2) the number of items subsumed under a given factor varied, from 2 to 13, so that the mean of means would have reflected different degrees of representativeness; and (3) it is probably most useful to know the learners' "bottom line", i.e., the lowest threshold at which they decide which language to use.

22. The selection of .5 and .2 as boundaries was motivated by natural breaks in the data.

23. Factor labels with identical names across the four item-cluster categories (desired and observed student language use; desired and observed teacher language use) do not necessarily denote the exact same set of items because the four clusters had been analyzed separately. For this reason, no statistical tests could be used to compare means assigned to factor labels across categories. Instead, given factor labels were compared based on natural breaks.

24. This university has a system of "retro-credits", whereby students receiving a letter grade of at least B in a foreign language class receive credit for all earlier courses in the sequence. This system helps students satisfy elective credit requirements without incurring additional time or money expenditures. As a result, third-year (as well as many second-year) courses are populated by students who have had instruction in a given foreign language in high school or at another university and now come to reap the benefits of their earlier work.

Works Cited

Aljaafreh, Ali, and James Lantolf. 1994. Negative Feedback as Regulation and L2 Learning in the Zone of Proximal Development. *Modern Language Journal* 78: 465–83.

Anton, Marta. 1999. The Discourse of a Learner-Centered Classroom: Sociocultural Perspectives on Teacher-Learner Interaction in the L2 Classroom. *Modern Language Journal* 83: 303–18.

Anton, Marta, and Frederick DiCamilla. 1998. Socio-cognitive Functions of L1 Collaborative Interaction in the L2 Classroom. *Canadian Modern Language Review* 54: 314–42.

Auerbach, Elisa Roberts 1993. Reexamining English Only in the ESL Classroom. *TESOL Quarterly* 27: 9–32.

———. 1994. The Author Responds. *TESOL Quarterly* 28: 157–61.

Bacon, Susan. 1989. Listening for Real in the Foreign Language Classroom. *Foreign Language Annals* 22: 543–51.

Barbour, Stephen, and Patrick Stevenson. 1990. *Variation in German.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Beauvois, Margaret Healy. 1998. Conversations in Slow Motion: Computer-Mediated Communication in the Foreign Language Classroom. *Canadian Modern Language Review* 54: 198–217.

Bernhardt, Elizabeth. 1991. *Reading Development in a L2. Theoretical, Empirical and Classroom Perspectives.* Norwood, NJ: Ablex Publishing Corporation.

Blyth, Carl. 1995. Redefining the Boundaries of Language Use: The Foreign Language Classroom as a Multilingual Speech Community. In *Redefining the Boundaries of Language Study*, edited by Claire Kramsch, 145–83. AAUSC Issues in Language Program Direction. Boston, MA: Heinle & Heinle.

Borg, Simon. 1999. The Use of Grammatical Terminology in the L2 Classroom: A Qualitative Study of Teachers' Practice and Cognitions. *Applied Linguistics* 20: 95–126.

Brown, H. Douglas. 1993. After Method: Toward a Principled Strategic Approach to Language Teaching. *Georgetown University Roundtable on Languages and Linguistics*. 509–20.

Brucker, K. 1992. When Asking Isn't Enough. *Adventures in Assessment* 2: 37–40.

Canagarajah, A. Suresh. 1999a. On EFL Teachers, Awareness, and Agency. *ELT Journal* 53: 207–14.

———. 1999b. Resisting Linguistic Imperialism in English Teaching. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Chavez, Monika. 2000. Teacher and Student Gender and Peer Group Gender Composition in German Foreign Language Classroom Discourse: An Exploratory Study. *Journal of Pragmatics* 32: 1019–58.

Collingham, M. 1988. Making Use of Students' Linguistic Resources. In *Current Issues in Teaching English as a L2 to Adults,* edited by S. Nicholls and E. Hoadley-Maidment (eds.), 81–5. London: Edward Arnold.

Cook, Vivian James. 1991. The Poverty-of-the-Stimulus Argument and Multi-Competence. *L2 Research* 7: 103–17.

———. 1999. Going Beyond the Native Speaker in Language Teaching. *TESOL Quarterly* 33: 185–209.

———. 2001. Using the L1 in the Classroom. *Canadian Modern Language Review* 57: 402–23.

Devine, Joanne, Kevin Railey, and Philip Boshoff. 1993. The Implications of Cognitive Models in L1 and L2 Writing. *Journal of L2 Writing* 2: 203–25.

Duff, Patricia, and Charlene Polio. 1990. How Much Foreign Language Is There in the Foreign Language Classroom? *Modern Language Journal* 74: 154–66.

Ferguson, Charles. 1959. Diglossa. *Word* 15: 325–40.

Fishman, Joshua. 1967. Bilingualism With and Without Diglossia; Diglossia With and Without Bilingualism. *Journal of Social Issues* 23: 29–38.

Gardner, Robert, and Wallace Lambert. 1972. *Attitudes and Motivation in Second-Language Learning.* Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Hancock, Mark. 1997. Behind Classroom Code Switching: Layering and Language Choice in L2 Learner Interaction. *TESOL Quarterly* 31: 217–35.

Harlow, Linda, and Judith Muyskens. 1994. Priorities for Intermediate-Level Language Instruction. *Modern Language Journal* 78: 141–54.

Horwitz, Elaine. 1988. The Beliefs about Language Learning of Beginning University Foreign Language Students. *Modern Language Journal* 72: 283-94.

Kern, Richard. 1994. The Role of Mental Translation in L2 Reading. *Studies in L2 Acquisition* 16: 441–61.

———. (1995). Students' and Teachers' Beliefs About Language Learning. *Foreign Language Annals* 28, 71–92.

Kobayashi, Hiroe, and Carol Rinnert. 1992. Effects of L1 on L2 Writing. Translation versus Direct Composition. *Language Learning* 42: 183–215.

Kramsch, Claire. 1998. The Privilege of the Intercultural Speaker. In *Language Learning in Intercultural Perspective: Approaches through Drama and Ethnography*, edited by M. Byram, and M. Fleming, 16–31. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Lantolf, James, and Gabriela Appel. 1994. *Vygotskian Approaches to L2 Research.* Norwood, NJ: Ablex Publishing Corporation.

Lee, James. 1986. L2 Reading and Background Knowledge. *Modern Language Journal* 70: 350–54.

Legenhausen, Lienhard. 1991. Code-Switching in Learners' Discourse. *IRAL* 29: 61–73.

Lin, Angel M. Y. 1999. Doing-English-Lessons in the Reproduction of Transformation of Social Worlds? *TESOL Quarterly* 33: 393–412.

Liskin-Gasparro, Judith.1998. Linguistic Development in an Immersion Context: How Advanced Learners of Spanish Perceive SLA. *Modern Language Journal* 82: 159–75.

Low, Graham.1996. Intensifiers and Hedges in Questionnaire Items and Lexical Invisibility Hypothesis. *Applied Linguistics* 17: 1–37.

———. 1999. What Respondents Do with Questionnaires: Accounting for Incongruity and Fluidity. *Applied Linguistics* 20: 503–33.

McCafferty, Steven.1994. Adult L2 Learners' Use of Private Speech: A Review of Studies. *Modern Language Journal* 78: 421–36.

Mings, Robert. 1993. Changing Perspectives on the Utility of Error Correction in L2 Acquisition. *Foreign Language Annals* 26: 171–79.

Osburne, Andrea. 1986. Using Native Language Writing in the ESOL Composition Class. *TECFORS* 9: 1–5. University of Houston.

Osburne, Andrea, and Sandra Harss-Covalski. 1991. *Translation in the ESOL Composition Class.* Unpublished manuscript. Central Connecticut State University, New Britain.

Pfaff, Carol. 1997. Contacts and Conflicts: Perspectives from Code-Switching Research. In *Language Choices: Conditions, Constraints, and Consequences*, edited by Martin Putz, 341–60. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Piasecka, K. 1986. The Bilingual Teacher in the ESL Classroom. In *Current Issues in Teaching ESL to Adults*, edited by S. Nicholls and E. Hoadley-Maidment, 97–103. London: Edward Arnold.

Platt, Elizabeth, and Frank Brooks. 1994. The "Acquisition-Rich Environment" Revisited. *Modern Language Journal* 78: 497-511.

Polio, Charlene.1994. Comments on Elsa Roberts Auerbach's "Reexamining English Only in the ESL Classroom". *TESOL Quarterly* 28: 153–56.

Polio, Charlene, and Patricia Duff. 1994. Teachers' Language Use in University Foreign Language Classrooms: A Qualitative Analysis of English and Target Language Alternation. *Modern Language Journal* 78: 313–26.

Poulisse, Nanda, and Theo Bongaerts. 1994. L1 Use in L2 Production. *Applied Linguistics* 15: 35–57.

Qi, Donald.1998. An Inquiry into Language-switching in L2 Composing Processes. *Canadian Modern Language Review* 54: 413–36.

Reifsnyder, Kristen, and Sara Rocheford. 2000. Do You Speak English? Teachers' Use of English in the Foreign Language Classroom. Seminar Paper. The University of Wisconsin-Madison.

Sato, Kazuyoshi, and Robert Kleinsasser. 1999. Communicative Language Teaching (CLT): Practical Understandings. *Modern Language Journal* 83/4: 494–517.

Schulz, Jean Marie, Armando Di Carlo, Lynne Frame, Rick Kern, Hermania Kerr, Lisa Little, Sam Mchombo, Kay Richards, and Clare You. 2002. The Use of the L1 in the Foreign Language Classroom at UC Berkeley. *Language Teaching at Berkeley*. UC-Berkeley Language Center Newsletter 17 (2): 1–4.

Schulz, Renate. 1996. Focus on Form in the Foreign Language Classroom: Students' and Teachers' Views on Error Correction and the Role of Grammar. *Foreign Language Annals* 29: 343–64.

Susser, Bernard. 1994. Process Approaches in ESL/EFL Writing Instructions. *Journal of L2 Writing 3*: 31–47.

Swain, Merrill, and Sharon Lapkin. 1998. Interaction and L2 Learning: Two Adolescent French Immersion Students Working Together. *Modern Language Journal* 82: 320–37.

Swaffar, Janet. 1988. Readers, Texts, and L2s. The Interactive Processes. *Modern Language Journal* 72: 123–49.

Swaffar, Janet, Katherine Arens, and Heidi Byrnes. 1991. *Reading for Meaning. An Integrated Approach to Language Learning*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Tschirner, Erwin. 1996. Scope and Sequence: Rethinking Beginning Foreign Language Instruction. *Modern Language Journal* 80: 1–14.

Wells, Gordon. 1998. Using L1 to Master L2: A Response to Anton and DiCamilla's 'Socio-cognitive Functions of L1 Collaborative Interaction in the L2 Classroom'. Socio-cognitive Functions of L1 Collaborative Interaction in the L2 Classroom. *Canadian Modern Language Review* 54: 343–53.

Whitley, Stanley. 1993. Communicative Language Teaching: An Incomplete Revolution. *Foreign Language Annals* 26: 137–54.

Williams, Sarah. and Bjorn Hammarberg. 1998. Language Switches in L3 Production: Implications for a Polyglot Speaking Model. *Applied Linguistics* 19: 295–333.

Zéphir, Flore and Marie-Magdeleine Chirol. 1993. Attitudes of Teaching Assistants and Students Toward the Exclusive Use of the Target Language in Beginning French Classes. In *The Dynamics of Language Program Direction*, edited by David Benseler, 241–63. AAUSC Issues in Language Program Direction. Boston: Heinle & Heinle.

APPENDICES

Appendix A: The Questionnaire

Which language should the teacher use ... ?

1. when explaining what students should do at home
2. when going over homework which had been assigned for today
3. when explaining about an upcoming test
4. when explaining a test students are just taking
5. when reviewing a past test
6. when explaining the syllabus at the beginning of the course
7. when explaining background information before a reading assignment
8. when explaining background information before playing an audio or video tape
9. when explaining about the culture in general i.e. not directly related to an assignment
10. when talking about a new grammar point
11. when reviewing grammar that the class has already covered earlier
12. when conducting grammar practice
13. when introducing new vocabulary
14. when reviewing vocabulary which the class has already covered earlier
15. when conducting vocabulary practice
16. when making small talk with the class
17. when joking with the class
18. when making small talk with a particular student (in class)
19. when joking with a particular student (in class)
20. when asking students (in class) about how the course is going for them
21. when giving directions for group or pair work
22. when going around and talking to students as they do group or pair work

23. when checking students' comprehension of a reading assignment
24. when checking students' comprehension of an audio or video tape
25. when leading a discussion on issues raised in an audio or video tape
26. when leading a discussion on issues raised in a reading text
27. when giving **written** feedback on students' **written** work
28. when giving **oral** feedback on students' **written** work in speaking
29. when giving **written** feedback on students' **speaking performance**
30. when giving **oral** feedback on students' **speaking performance**
31. when performing routines such as greeting students saying which page to look at etc.
32. on grammar hand outs
33. on vocabulary hand outs
34. on hand outs for interaction (e.g. role-play discussion etc.)
35. in office hours
36. when s/he runs into students outside of class chance

Which language should the students use ... ?

37. when asking the teacher questions about a new grammar point
38. when asking the teacher questions in a grammar review
39. when the class practices grammar
40. when practicing grammar with other students in group or pair work
41. when asking the teacher questions about new vocabulary
42. when asking the teacher questions in a vocabulary review
43. when the class practices vocabulary
44. when practicing vocabulary with other students in group or pair work
45. when asking the teacher as s/he explains about the background for a reading text
46. when asking the teacher as s/he explains about the background for an audio or video tape
47. when asking the teacher about general cultural issues
48. when asking the teacher about instructions on a homework assignment
49. when asking the teacher about instructions on a test
50. when asking the teacher about the syllabus or course
51. when asking the teacher about instructions for group or pair work
52. when discussing instructions for group or pair work with other students
53. when asking the teacher about how to express something with good grammar
54. when asking the teacher about which word to use
55. when asking other students about how to express something with good grammar

56. when asking other students about which word to use
57. when they practice grammar in groups or pairs
58. when they practice vocabulary in groups or pairs
59. when they discuss issues in groups or pairs
60. when they engage in role play with each other
61. when they solve problems in groups or pairs
62. when they review each other's work
63. when the teacher checks how well they comprehended a reading
64. when the teacher checks how well they comprehended an audio or video tape
65. when the class discusses issues raised in a reading text
66. when the class discusses issues raised in an audio or video tape
67. when they discuss with the teacher (in class) how the course is going for them
68. when making small talk with the teacher (in class)
69. when making small talk with each other (in class)
70. when joking with the teacher (in class)
71. when joking with each other (in class)
72. when giving **written** feedback on other students' **written** work
73. when giving **oral** feedback on other students' **written** work in speaking
74. when giving **written** feedback on other students' **speaking performance**
75. when giving **oral** feedback other students' **speaking performance**
76. when performing routines, such as greeting the teacher & each other, asking which page the class is on, etc.
77. when visiting the teacher's office hours
78. when running into the teacher outside of class, by chance
79. when running into each other outside of class, by chance

Which language does the teacher use .... ?

80. when explaining what students should do at home
81. when going over homework which had been assigned for today
82. when explaining about an upcoming test
83. when explaining a test students are just taking
84. when reviewing a past test
87. when explaining background information before playing an audio or video tape
88. when explaining about the culture in general, i.e., not directly related to an assignment
89. when talking about a new grammar point
90. when reviewing grammar that we have already covered earlier

91. when conducting grammar practice
92. when introducing new vocabulary
93. when reviewing vocabulary which we have already covered earlier
94. when conducting vocabulary practice
95. when making small talk with the class
96. when joking with the class
97. when making small talk with a particular student (in class)
98. when joking with a particular student (in class)
99. when talking with students (in class) about how the course is going for them
100. when giving directions for group or pair work
101. when going around and talking to students as they do group or pair work
102. when checking students' comprehension of a reading assignment
103. when checking students' comprehension of an audio or video tape
104. when leading a discussion on issues raised in an audio or video tape
105. when leading a discussion on issues raised in a reading text
106. when giving **written** feedback on students' **written** work
107. when giving **oral** feedback on students' **written** work in speaking
108. when giving **written** feedback on students' **speaking performance**
109. when giving **oral** feedback on students' **speaking performance**
110. when performing routines, such as greeting students, saying which page to look at, etc.
111. on grammar hand outs
112. on vocabulary hand outs
113. on hand outs for interaction (e.g., role-play, discussion, etc.)
114. in office hours
115. when s/he runs into students outside of class, by chance

Which language do you (a student) use .... ?

116 when I ask the teacher questions about a new grammar point
117. when I ask the teacher questions in a grammar review
118. when the class practices grammar
119. when I practice grammar with other students in group or pair work
120. when I ask the teacher questions about new vocabulary
121. when I ask the questions in a vocabulary review
122. when the class practices vocabulary
123. when I practice vocabulary with other students in group or pair work
124. when I ask the teacher as s/he explains about the background for a reading text

125. when I ask the teacher as s/he explains about the background for an audio or video tape
126. when I ask the teacher about general cultural issues
127. when I ask the teacher about instructions on a homework assignment
128. when I ask the teacher about instructions on a test
129. when I ask the teacher about the syllabus or course
130. when I ask the teacher about instructions for group or pair work
131. when I discuss instructions for group or pair work with other students
132. when I ask the teacher about how to express something with good grammar
133. when I ask the teacher about which word to use
134. when I ask other students about how to express something with good grammar
135. when I ask other students about which word to use
136. when I practice grammar in groups or pairs
137. when I practice vocabulary in groups or pairs
138. when I discuss issues in groups or pairs
139. when I engage in role play with other students
140. when I solve problems in groups or pairs
141. when I review other students' work
142. when the teacher checks how well students comprehended a reading
143. when the teacher checks how well students comprehended an audio or video tape
144. when the class discusses issues raised in a reading text
145. when the class discusses issues raised in an audio or video tape
146. when the class discusses with teacher (in class) how the course is going
147. when I make small talk with the teacher (in class)
148. when I make small talk with other students (in class)
149. when I joke with the teacher (in class)
150. when I joke with other students (in class)
151. when I give **written** feedback on students' **written** work
152. when I give **oral** feedback on students' **written** work in speaking
153. when I give **written** feedback on students' **speaking performance**
154. when I give **oral** feedback on students' **speaking performance**
155. when I perform routines, such as greeting the teacher & other students, asking which page the class is on, etc.
156. when I visit the teacher's office hours
157. when I run into the teacher outside of class, by chance
158. when I run into other students outside of class

Appendix B: Results of Factor Analyses (Years 1, 2, 3) with Item Mean Ranges

Factor	Year 1	Year 2	Year 3
	Cluster 1 [items 1.-36.]: Desired Teacher Language Use		
1	practice (.7) [11, 12, 14, 15, 31] [means 3.8,4,4.4,4.2,4.4]]	practice (.7) [12, 13, 14, 15] [means 4.1,3.6,4.3,4.2]]	socializing (.8) [16,17,18,19] [means 4.3-4.6]
2	socializing in class (.8) [16,17, 18, 19] [means 3.3-3.8]	socializing (.8) [16,17,18,19] [means around 4]	evaluation (.7) [1,2,3,4] [means 3.3-4.2]
3	background information (.7) [7, 8] [means of 3.0]	feedback (.7) [27,28,29,30] [means 3.2-3.3]	feedback (.8) [27,28,29,30] [means 3.9-4.2]
4	feedback (.8) [27,28,29, 30] [means 2.9-3.0]	comprehen. & discuss. (.7) [23,24,25,26] [means 3.4-3.8]	practice (.6) [10,11,12,32,33,34] [means of 3.6-4.2]
5	comprehen. & discussion (.7) [23, 24, 25, 26] [means 3.2-3.3]	evaluation(.5) [1,2,3,4,5] [means 3,3.6,2.6,2.8,3.3]	comprehen. check (.7) [23,24] [means of 4.2]
6	testing & new grammar (.5) [4,5,10] [means of 2.8-3.1]	check (.3) [2,5,7,8,10,11,12,22,34] [means 3.6,3.3,3.3,3.4,3.1, 4,3.8,3.6]	discussion (.8) [25,26] [means of 4.4]
7	organization (.3) [1, 3, 5, 6, 20] [means of 2.3-3.1]	outside class (.8) [35,36] [means of 2.6 & 2.5]	outside class (.7) [35,36] [means of 2.7 & 2.9]
8	outside class (.6) [35, 36] means of 2.6 & 2.5]	——	explanation (.3) [5,6,7,8,9,15] [means 3.9,3.2,3.9,4.1, 4.4.4.7]
9	——	——	
	Cluster 2 [items 37.-79]: Desired Language Use		
1	practice (.7) [39,40,43,44,57, 5876] [means 3.8-4.0]	practice (.7) [39,40,43,44,57,58,60] [means of 3.7-4]	requesting feedback/ direction (.6)[38,45,46,47, 48,49, 50,51,52,53,54,55,56] [means 3.7-4.1]
2	giving feedback (.7) [72,73,74,75] [means of 2.6-2.7]	giving feedback (.7) [72,73,74,75] [means of 2.9-3.0]	practice (.7) [39,40,43,44,57,58,59.60] [means 4.4-4.6]
3	interaction (.6) [63,64,65,66] [means of 3.0-3.2]	requesting backgrnd. (.6) [45,47] [means of 3.2]	giving feedback (.7) [72,73,74,75] [means of 3.6-3.7]

Appendix B, Cluster 2 (*continued*)

Factor	Year 1	Year 2	Year 3
4	socializing (.8) [68,69,70,71] [means of 2.9-3.2]	outside class (.7) [77,78,79] [means 2.6-3.1]	socializing (.6) [68,69,70,71,76] [means of 3.8-4.6]
5	requesting feedback/ direction (.6) [54,55,56] [means of 2.7-3.0]	comprehen. check (.8) [63,64] [means of 3.4]	outside class (.6) [77,78,79] [means 2.8,2.9,2.2]
6	chance encounters outside class (.7) [78,79] [means of 2.6]	socializing (.6) [68,69,70,71] [means of 3.1-3.5]	comprehen. check (.7) [63,64] [means of 4.1]
7	grammar questions (.7) [37,38] [means of 2.5 & 2.9]	asking about language structure (.5) [37,38, 41,42] [means 3,3.3,3.2,3.6]	grammar (.4) [37,38,39] [means of 3.6, 3.8, 4.5]
8	qu. re background & instructions (.5) [45,46,48,49 [means 2.9,2.9,2.6,2.2]	asking about language production (.4) [53,54,55,56] [means of 3.0-3.3]	
	Cluster 3 [items 80-115]: Observed Teacher Language Use		
1	practice& review (.7) [90-94] [means of 4.0-4.2]	review & explanation (.7) [80,81,90,91-94, 100, 101,105,106,110] [means 4.2,4.3,4.4,4.4,4.1, 4.5,4,4,4.3,4.1,4.3,4.2,4.6]	grammar & testing (.6) [81,82,83,89,90] [means of 4.4-4.8]
2	socializing (.8) [95, 96,97, 98] [means of 3.4-3.7]	socializing (.8) [95,96,97,98] [means of 3.9-4.0]	grammar practice & vocab (.7) [91,92,93,94] [means of 4.4-4.7]
3	comprehension check & discussion [102, 103, 104, 105] [means of 3.3 - 3.7]	video & audio (.7) [87,103,104] [means of 3.8-4.0]	socializing (.7) [95,96,97,98] [means of 4.5-4.7]
4	explanation (.7) [85, 88,89] [means of 2.1-3.1]	outside class (.7) [114,115] [means of 2.2 & 2.0]	feedback (.7) [107,108,109] [means 4.1,3.5,4]
5	outside class (.8) [114,115] [means of 1.8 & 1.9]	feedback on speaking (.9) [108,109] [means of 3.1]	managing peer work (.8) [100,101] [means of 4.7 & 4.8]
6	hand-outs (.7) [111,112,113] [means of 3.4-3.6]	hand-outs (.7) [111,112,113] [means 3.8-4.1]	video & audio (.8) [87,103,104] [means of 3.3-3.5]
7	directions about a test (.5) [82,83,84] [means of 3.0-3.1]	explaining about a test (.6) [82,83] [means of 3.8 & 3.7]	texts (.6) [88,102,105] [means of 4.7-4.8]
8	feedback (.4) [106, 107, 108, 109] [means 3.3,2.9,2.6,3.2]	——	outside class (.8) [114,115] [means of 1.7 & 1.8]

(*continued*)

Appendix B (*continued*)

Factor	Year 1	Year 2	Year 3
	Cluster 4 [items 116-158]: Observed Student Use		
1	asking about grammar & vocab (.6) [116,117,120,121,132,133] [means of 2.0-2.5]	asking for directions & instructions (.7) [127,128,130,131,134,135] [means of 2.6-3]	asking & socializing with the teacher (.6) [116,117,124, 126,127, 128,132,133,147,149] [means of 3.7-4.0]]
2	practice with peers (.7) [122,123,136,137,139] [means 3.8,3.3,3.2,3.6,3.2]	text comprehension & discussion (.7) [142-145] [means of 3.3-3.6]	peer practice (.6) [119,123,136,137, 140,146] [means of 3.6-3.8]
3	giving feedback (.8) [151,152,153,154] [means of 1.5-1.7]	peer practice (.7) [119,123,136,137] [means of 3.3-3.5]	giving feedback (.8) [151,152,153,154] [means of 2.2-2.4]
4	asking about background & instructions (.6) [124-128, 130, 131] [means of 2-2.3]	giving feedback (.7) [151,152,153,154] [means of 2 (153 & 154, speaking; and 2.5 (151 &152 on writing]	peer interaction (.7) [131,134,135,148,150] [means of 2.8-3.6]
5	text comprehension & discussion (.7) [142-145] [means of 2.7,2.6,2.3,2.3]	socializing with the teacher in class (.7) [147,149] [means of 2.8-3.1]	video & audio (.8) [125,143,145] [means of 3-3.3]
6	socializing (.6) [147-150] [means of 1.8-2.5]	outside class (.7) [156,157,158] [means of 1.5 -1.6]	grammar practice (.7) [118, 120] [means 4.4, 4.1]
7	outside class (.7) [157,158] [means of 1.3]	asking about background (.5) [124,125] [means of 3-3.2]	outside class (.7) [156,157,158] [means of 1.4-1.6]
8	grammar practice (.5) [118,119] [means of 3.6 & 3.2]	——	
9	group & pair work (.4) [138,140] [means of 2.6 & 2.5]		

ED 027876

U.S. Department of Education
Office of Educational Research and Improvement (OERI)
National Library of Education (NLE)
Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC)

ERIC

REPRODUCTION RELEASE

BLANKET

I. DOCUMENT IDENTIFICATION:

Title: AAUSC Issues in Language Program Direction	
Author(s): Magnan, Sally Sieloff	
Corporate Source: Heinle / Thomson Learning	Publication Date: 11/14/03

II. REPRODUCTION RELEASE:

In order to disseminate as widely as possible timely and significant materials of interest to the educational community, documents announced in the monthly abstract journal of the ERIC system, *Resources in Education* (RIE), are usually made available to users in microfiche, reproduced paper copy, and electronic media, and sold through the ERIC Document Reproduction Service (EDRS). Credit is given to the source of each document, and, if reproduction release is granted, one of the following notices is affixed to the document.

If permission is granted to reproduce and disseminate the identified document, please CHECK ONE of the following three options and sign at the bottom of the page.

The sample sticker shown below will be affixed to all Level 1 documents

PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE AND DISSEMINATE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

Sample

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

1

Level 1

☑

Check here for Level 1 release, permitting reproduction and dissemination in microfiche or other ERIC archival media (e.g., electronic) and paper copy.

The sample sticker shown below will be affixed to all Level 2A documents

PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE AND DISSEMINATE THIS MATERIAL IN MICROFICHE, AND IN ELECTRONIC MEDIA FOR ERIC COLLECTION SUBSCRIBERS ONLY, HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

Sample

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

2A

Level 2A

☐

Check here for Level 2A release, permitting reproduction and dissemination in microfiche and in electronic media for ERIC archival collection subscribers only

The sample sticker shown below will be affixed to all Level 2B documents

PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE AND DISSEMINATE THIS MATERIAL IN MICROFICHE ONLY HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

Sample

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

2B

Level 2B

☐

Check here for Level 2B release, permitting reproduction and dissemination in microfiche only

Documents will be processed as indicated provided reproduction quality permits.
If permission to reproduce is granted, but no box is checked, documents will be processed at Level 1.

I hereby grant to the Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) nonexclusive permission to reproduce and disseminate this document as indicated above. Reproduction from the ERIC microfiche or electronic media by persons other than ERIC employees and its system contractors requires permission from the copyright holder. Exception is made for non-profit reproduction by libraries and other service agencies to satisfy information needs of educators in response to discrete inquiries.

Sign here, → please

Signature:	Printed Name/Position/Title: Sean Ketchem, editor
Organization/Address: Heinle, 25 Thomson Place, Boston, MA 02210	Telephone: 617-289-7720 FAX: 617-289-7851
	E-Mail Address: sean.ketchem@heinle.com Date: 9/3/03

(over)

III. DOCUMENT AVAILABILITY INFORMATION (FROM NON-ERIC SOURCE):

If permission to reproduce is not granted to ERIC, or, if you wish ERIC to cite the availability of the document from another source, please provide the following information regarding the availability of the document. (ERIC will not announce a document unless it is publicly available, and a dependable source can be specified. Contributors should also be aware that ERIC selection criteria are significantly more stringent for documents that cannot be made available through EDRS.)

Publisher/Distributor:	Heinle / Thomson Learning
Address:	25 Thomson Place Boston, MA 02210
Price:	$25.00

IV. REFERRAL OF ERIC TO COPYRIGHT/REPRODUCTION RIGHTS HOLDER:

If the right to grant this reproduction release is held by someone other than the addressee, please provide the appropriate name and address:

Name:	
Address:	

V. WHERE TO SEND THIS FORM:

Send this form to the following ERIC Clearinghouse:

However, if solicited by the ERIC Facility, or if making an unsolicited contribution to ERIC, return this form (and the document being contributed) to:

ERIC Processing and Reference Facility
4483-A Forbes Boulevard
Lanham, Maryland 20706

Telephone: 301-552-4200
Toll Free: 800-799-3742
FAX: 301-552-4700
e-mail: ericfac@inet.ed.gov
WWW: http://ericfac.piccard.csc.com

EFF-088 (Rev. 2/2000)